

# Diurnal concentrations, sources, and cancer risk assessments of 1 PM 2.5 -bound PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs in urban, marine and 2 mountain environments

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Junmei Zhang, Lingxiao Yang, Abdelwahid S Mellouki, Jianmin Chen, Xiangfeng Chen, et al.. Diurnal concentrations, sources, and cancer risk assessments of 1 PM 2.5 -bound PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs in urban, marine and 2 mountain environments. Chemosphere, 2018, 209, pp.147-155. 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.06.054 hal-02459186

## HAL Id: hal-02459186 https://hal.science/hal-02459186v1

Submitted on 29 Jan 2020

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1	Diurnal concentrations, sources, and cancer risk assessments of
2	PM <sub>2.5</sub> -bound PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs in urban, marine and
3	mountain environments
4	
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- 24 Abstract
- 25

26 Ambient measurements of PM<sub>2.5</sub>-bounded polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), nitro-PAHs (NPAHs), and oxy-PAHs (OPAHs) were conducted during the summer in Jinan, 27 China, an urban site, and at Tuoji island and Mt. Tai, two background locations. 3.5 h and 11.5 h 28 29 sampling intervals in daytime and nighttime were utilized to research the diurnal variations of 30 PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs. The concentrations of PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs were highest at 31 the urban site and lowest at the marine site. The diurnal patterns of PAHs and NPAHs at the 32 urban and marine sites were dissimilar to those observed at the mountain site partly due to the 33 influence of the boundary layer. Vehicle emissions at the urban site made a large contribution to high molecular weight PAHs. 1N-PYR and 7N-BaA during morning and night sampling periods 34 35 in JN were relatively high. Fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning were the main sources 36 for all three sites during the sampling periods. The air masses at the marine and mountain sites 37 were strongly impacted by photo-degradation, and the air masses at the marine site were the 38 most aged. Secondary formation of NPAHs was mainly initiated by OH radicals at all the three 39 sites and was strongest at the marine site. Secondary formation was most efficient during the 40 daytime at the urban and mountain sites and during morning periods at the marine site. The 41 average excess cancer risk from inhalation (ECR) for 70 years' life span at the urban site was 42 much higher than those calculated for the background sites.

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44 Keywords
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46	PAHs, NPAHs,	OPAHs,	marine and	mountain	sites,	diurnal	variations
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- 47
- 48 **1. Introduction**
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Increasing levels of ambient particulate matter (PM) pollution from rapid urbanization and
economic development in China have drawn worldwide attention and have substantial adverse
effect on human health (Wang et al., 2014). The International Agency for Research on Cancer

53	(IARC) classified PM from outdoor air pollution as carcinogenic to humans in 2013 (Loomis et
54	al., 2013). The toxicity of PM is dependent on the certain chemical components, such as
55	polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAHs) and their derivatives. PAHs are known to be
56	mutagenic, genotoxic, and carcinogenic persistent organic pollutants (Abdel-Shafy and
57	Mansour, 2016; Łuczyński et al., 2005) and are mainly emitted by incomplete combustion of
58	organic materials, such as from coal and biomass burning, vehicle emissions, and industrial
59	processes. NPAHs and OPAHs are nitrated and oxygenated derivatives of PAHs, respectively.
60	Many NPAHs and OPAHs are more toxic than their parent PAHs due to their direct-acting
61	mutagenicity and carcinogenicity (Albinet et al., 2008; Pedersen et al., 2005), and high
62	molecular weight NPAHs and OPAHs generally present a greater hazard to health due to their
63	carcinogenic behavior. NPAHs and OPAHs are not only directly co-emitted with PAHs but also
64	formed through atmospheric photochemical reactions of parent PAHs with OH, $NO_x$ , and $O_3$
65	radicals (Reisen and Arey, 2005; Jariyasopit et al., 2014). The relative contributions of primary
66	and secondary sources of NPAHs and OPAHs varies greatly between different sampling sites
67	and periods (Kojima et al., 2010; Li et al., 2015).
68	To date, surveys of the concentrations, sources, transformation reactions, and long-distance
69	transport of NPAHs and OPAHs have been carried out in 24 h, monthly, and seasonal sampling
70	periods (Albinet et al., 2007, 2008; Zhuo et al., 2017; Zimmermann et al., 2012), which may be
71	influenced by the sampling artifact mainly including oxidative degradation caused by O <sub>3</sub> within

analytical techniques or the low concentration of NPAHs and OPAHs bounded in PM, shorter

the samplers (Balducci et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2014). Possibly due to the limits of current

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temporal sampling resolution measurements studies are scarce. As we know, only a few studies

75	have reported 12 h (Ringuet et al., 2012; Souza et al., 2014), 3 or 4 h (Alam et al., 2015;
76	Tsapakis and Stephanou, 2007), and 3.5 h and 11.5 h time intervals during the daytime and
77	nighttime, respectively (Reisen and Arey, 2005) measurements to analyze the diurnal variation
78	of NPAHs and OPAHs, which were mainly carried out at one or two sampling sites among
79	traffic site, suburban site, rural site, urban site, urban background site and marine background
80	site, and the molecular compositions of NPAHs and OPAHs were different from those in the
81	paper. No research has been found to study the diurnal variation of NPAHs and OPAHs under
82	mountain atmosphere conditions by short time intervals, let alone the detailed comparison
83	among mountain, marine and urban sampling sites. Less resolved measurements are subjected
84	to substantial disadvantages when attempting to understand the physical and chemical processes
85	(e.g., secondary formation) in the atmosphere (Ringuet et al., 2012). Shorter sampling periods
86	are more conducive to exploring the fate and governing factors of NPAHs and OPAHs (Elorduy
87	et al., 2016).
88	The concentrations and physicochemical properties of chemicals present in the

89 atmospheric environment vary by sampling regions due to many factors, such as differences in 90 population density, life style, or meteorological conditions (Seinfeld et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2012). Therefore, the molecular components and levels of PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs in PM 91 92 may show significant difference between urban and background areas. For example, urban areas 93 in China with greater population, dense traffic, and developed industry emit large amount of pollutants and frequently exhibit haze episodes (Wang et al., 2011b), which leads to high levels 94 95 of PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs. Conversely, background areas are typically characterized by sparse population and less emission sources, and may be significantly impacted by 96

97	long-distance transport, where the PAHs, NPAHs and OPAHs may be relatively aged. The
98	majority of previous studies on PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs were conducted in urban areas, such
99	as Beijing (Wu et al., 2014), Shenyang (Miller-Schulze et al., 2010), Xi'an (Wei et al., 2015),
100	Guangzhou (Tan et al., 2011), Southern European cities (Alves et al., 2017) and Braga, Portugal
101	(Alves et al., 2016), where PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs are present in high concentrations.
102	Limited information has been reported on the sources and properties of PAHs, NPAHs, and
103	OPAHs in background areas in China (Liu et al., 2013) and other developing countries (Lee et
104	al., 2006), which inhibits the characterization and evaluation of regional pollution, transport,
105	and human exposure risk.
106	With the rapid economic development, China has the largest emissions of PAHs in the
107	world (annual emission 106 Gg in 2007, accounting for 21% of the global total emission) (Shen
108	et al., 2013), the North of China as one of the most polluted areas have more intensive emission
109	(Xu et al., 2005). In order to investigate the diurnal and spatial variations, sources, secondary
110	formation, long-distance transport, and cancer risk assessments of PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs,
111	PM <sub>2.5</sub> samples were collected in three distinct locations (an urban, a mountain, and a marine site)
112	in the North of China at 3.5 h and 11.5 h intervals during the daytime and nighttime,
113	respectively.
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115	2. Methodology
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117	2.1. Study sites and sampling
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119	PM <sub>2.5</sub> samples were collected at three sites in the North of China. Jinan (JN), the highly
120	populated capital of Shandong Province, was selected to represent an urban environment. The
121	area is characterized by poor atmospheric diffusion conditions due to the surrounding

122	mountains on three sides and high pollutant emissions (Yang et al., 2007). The sampling site in
123	JN (36°40'N, 117°03'E; 50 m above sea level; a.s.l.) (Fig. 1) was on the rooftop of a building at
124	the central campus of Shandong University. It is surrounding by school, residential, and
125	commercial areas, with no significant stationary pollution sources. The mountain site was at the
126	summit of Mount Tai (MT, 36°15'N, 117°06'E 1465 m a.s.l.) in the southeast of Shandong
127	Province in the center of Northern China, which represents the mountain background site. It is
128	strongly influenced by the East Asian monsoon circulation and is an ideal location for
129	investigating atmospheric chemistry processing of air pollutants because the measurement site
130	was located above the nighttime planetary boundary layer. The sampling site for MT was
131	located at the Kongjun Hotel, which is far from the frequently visited zones. So the data
132	obtained in the area can be regional representative due to unique geographical location, climatic
133	conditions and negligible anthropogenic emissions. The marine sampling site Tuoji Island (TJ;
134	38°11'N, 120°44'E; 153 m a.s.l.) was located in the middle of the Bohai Strait at the distance of
135	about 40 km and 70 km from Penglai and Dalian, which is considered as the marine background
136	site. This site had the lowest elevation among the background monitoring stations and is the
137	sole marine atmospheric background station in Northern China. It is an ideal receptor site for
138	investigating continental outflow pollution. Details of the site has been described in greater
139	detail previously (Zhang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018).
140	$PM_{2.5}$ samples were collected in TJ from June 12 to 17, in JN from June 22 to July 04, and
141	in MT from July 09 to 23, 2015 by a mid-volume suspended particle sampler (Model TH-150 A;
142	Wuhan Tianhong Corporation, China). Quartz filters with 1 $\mu$ m pore size and 88 mm diameter
143	were used to collect samples (Pall Gelman Inc., USA,). Each filter was baked for 6 h at 600°C

144	before sampling. The flow rate of the samplers was 100 L min <sup>-1</sup> , and each sampler was
145	calibrated before and after sampling. The sampling time periods per day was 7:00-10:30
146	(morning), 11:00-14:30 (day), 15:00-18:30 (evening), and 19:00-6:30 the next day (night) local
147	time. The concentration during daytime period means the average concentration during morning,
148	day and evening periods. Frequent rainfall events occurred during the sampling periods at the
149	mountain and urban sites, so 20 samples (5 samples from the four sampling time periods) were
150	selected for each site. Rainy sampling days were excluded from the analysis.
151	
152 153	2.2. Sample analysis
154	Due to short sampling time and low levels of NPAHs and OPAHs at the background sites,
155	the sample filters (three circles with a diameter of 25 mm from every sample filter) obtained in
156	the same time interval at the same sampling site were combined prior to analysis. The combined
157	samples were analyzed by Soxhlet extraction with 150 mL dichloromethane (DCM) for 8 h. The
158	extracted samples were concentrated to about 1 mL by rotary evaporation and then fractionated
159	by silica/alumina gel columns (1 cm internal diameter $\times$ 35 cm length). 12 cm alumina (bottom),
160	12 cm silica (middle), and 1cm anhydrous sodium sulfate (top). The silica and alumina were
161	baked for 6 h at 400 °C by muffle furnace and then activated at 130 °C for 16 h before use. The
162	purification columns were eluted by 20 mL hexane (discarded) and then by 70 mL mixture of
163	hexane and DCM (1:1, $v/v$ ) (collected). The elutes were concentrated by a rotary evaporator to
164	about 1 mL at 30±1°C (water bath), added to 10 mL hexane for solvent displacement, and then
165	evaporated again to 1-2 mL by rotary evaporation. The concentrated elutes were further
166	concentrated to 1 mL under high purity nitrogen stream at 30±1 °C. Internal standards

167 (naphthalene- $d_8$ , anthracene- $d_{10}$ , pyrene- $d_{10}$ , perylene- $d_{12}$ , 1-nitronaphthalene- $d_7$ , 168 9-nitroanthracene- $d_9$ , 1-nitropyrene- $d_9$ , 6-nitrochrysene- $d_{11}$  and anthraquinone- $d_8$ ) were spiked 169 prior to the sample injection into the gas chromatography - mass spectrometer (GC-MS). All 170 used glassware devices were soaked in potassium dichromate lotion, rinsed by purified water 171 and ultrapure water, and then baked at 100 °C until dry.

A gas chromatograph coupled (GC, Agilent 7890A) with a triple quadrupole mass 172 spectrometer (MS/MS, Agilent 7000) with a 5% phenyl substituted methylpolysiloxane GC 173 174 column (HP-5MS, length: 30 m, diameter: 0.25 mm, film thickness: 0.25 µm, Agilent, USA) 175 was used to analyze PAHs. The system was set to use electron impact ionization (EI) in selected 176 ion monitoring (SIM) mode. The oven temperature program was held at 60°C for 1 min, gradually increased to 150 °C at the rate of 40 °C/min where it was held for 5min, and then 177 178 increased to 300 °C at 4°C/min and held for 15min. 17 different PAHs were detected based on 179 retention time and qualitative and quantitative ions of standard PAHs. The NPAHs and OPAHs was also measured by GC-MS/MS with HP-5MS column using negative chemical ionization 180 181 (NCI) in SIM mode. The GC oven temperature program for NPAHs and OPAHs was 60 °C for 182 1 min, ramped at 15 °C /min to 150 °C, to 300 °C at a rate of 5 °C, then held for 15 min. The targeted analytes included acenaphthene (ACE), acenaphthylene (ACY), fluorene 183

(FLU), phenanthrene (PHE), anthracene (ANT), fluoranthene (FLT), pyrene (PYR),
benzo(a)anthracene (BaA), chrysene (CHY), benzo(b)fluoranthene (BbF), benzo(k)fluoranthene
(BkF), benzo(a)pyrene (BaP), benzo(e)pyrene (BeP), indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene (IcdP),
dibenzo(a,h)anthracene (DahA), benzo(g,h,i)perylene (BghiP), coronene (COR),
5-nitroacenaphthene (5N-ACE), 2-nitrofluorene (2N-FLU), 9-nitroanthracene (9N-ANT),

189	9-nitrophenanthrene (9N-PHE), 3-nitrophenanthrene (3N-PHE), 2-nitroanthracene (2N-ANT)
190	2+3-nitrofluoranthene (2+3N-FLT), 1-nitropyrene (1N-PYR), 2-nitropyrene (2N-PYR)
191	7-nitrobenzanthracene (7N-BaA), 6-nitrochrysene (6N-CHR), 6-nitrobenz(a)pyrene (6N-BaP)
192	9-fluorenone (9FO), anthraquinone (ATQ), phenanthrene-9-aldehyde (PHE-9-ALD)
193	benzanthrone (BZO), benzaanthracene-7,12-dione (BaAQ).

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#### 2.3. Quality control and data analysis

197 The air sampler without a denuder for reactive gaseous species removal may result in 198 sampling artifacts due to the degradation of PAHs and their derivatives (Menichini, 2009; Liu et 199 al., 2014), but the denuder-based sampling system has not yet been used widely in literature. So 200 the sampling artifacts was not considered too much in the paper, which may lead to 201 underestimation of PAHs and their derivatives, especially BaP.

Prior to sample analysis, surrogate standards, including acenaphthene-d<sub>10</sub>, chrysene-d<sub>12</sub>, 202 2-nitrofluorene-d<sub>9</sub> and 3-nitrofluoranthene-d<sub>9</sub>, were spiked in 50% randomly loaded filters in 203 204 order to monitor the complete analysis process. The recoveries were: acenaphthene- $d_{10}$  84±14%, chrysene-d<sub>12</sub>: 91±10%, 2-nitrofluorene-d<sub>9</sub>: 98±26%, and 3-nitrofluoranthene-d<sub>9</sub>: 84±15%. The 205 206 method recoveries were tested by spiking 50 ng, 100 ng, and 200 ng standards of target PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs in the cleaned filters, and the recoveries were 97±15% for PAHs and 207 208 90±14% for derivatives. Procedural, lab, and field blanks were analyzed, and the measured values of PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs were negligible. The blank values and recoveries were not 209 210 used to correct the measured values of the samples. Duplicate samples from the same filters, 211 which were extracted and measured by GC-MS/MS using the same protocol above mentioned,

were analyzed, and the average variation was 11.2%.

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### **3.** Results and discussion

#### **3.1. Diurnal variation of PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs concentrations**

The concentrations of the individual PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs during the four sampling 218 periods are presented in Fig. 2 and TableS. 1. The concentration of total PAHs at the urban site 219 ranged from 12.17 to 26.65 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, with a mean of 19.45 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, which is much higher than 220 those at the marine (between 3.07 and 6.36 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, with a mean value of 4.44 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) and 221 mountain sites (ranged from 3.27 to 6.98 ng  $m^{-3}$ , with an average of 5.39 ng  $m^{-3}$ ). A similar 222 223 diurnal pattern was observed at the marine and urban site with the highest PAHs concentrations during the morning and night sampling periods. This is different from the result that no 224 225 obviously diurnal pattern for PAHs at Mediterranean marine background site, Finokalia, Island of Crete was found in Tsapakis and Stephanou, (2007). Direct emissions from vehicular traffic 226 during the morning period, and the lower mixing layer height and heavy truck traffic 227 228 (yellow-labeled vehicles were not banned in the night) during the night period likely 229 contributed to the high PAHs concentrations observed during these times. The concentration is lower during the evening period likely due to the enhanced photochemical activity during the 230 231 day period. Most individual components showed a similar diurnal pattern at JN and TJ sites, for 232 example FLU, PHE, BaA, CHY, BbF, BkF, BaP, IcdP and BghiP, which all shows a substantial morning and night rush time peak, which is slightly different from the study in PM<sub>10</sub> in 233 234 Birmingham UK (Alam et al., 2015) with maximum level during morning period (7:00-11:00), and is similar to that in East of France at three urban sites (Strasbourg, Besancon and Spicheren) 235

236	in $PM_{10}$ with highest concentrations during morning (04:00-10:00) and evening (16:00-22:00)
237	times (Delhomme and Millet, 2012). Han et al., (2011) suggested that the peak of PAHs
238	concentration in five US counties (Maricopa, AZ, Anoka, MN, Harris, TX, Pinellas, FL and
239	Jefferson, KY) occurred during morning rush hour times (6:00), and the peak was also observed
240	during nighttime in Sacramento, CA. However, the PAHs measured at the mountain site
241	exhibited higher concentrations during the morning and day periods and the lowest
242	concentrations during the night period. Every individual species showed higher concentration
243	during the daytime (the average concentration during morning, day and evening periods),
244	compared with that during the nighttime at MT. The high elevation of the sampling location
245	(about 1500 m) may have impeded the transport of air masses from ground level to the top of
246	the mountain during the night period, resulting in the lower concentration.
247	FLT, CHY, BbF, and BghiP were the dominant PAHs at the urban site, accounting for
248	43.1%-47.3% of total PAHs, in all measurements, which indicates that the major source was
249	likely coal combustion and vehicle emissions. FLU, PHE, FLT, and CHY were dominate in the
250	samples from the marine and mountain sites, accounting for 50.9%-61.5% and 53.3%-61.0%,
251	respectively. The distinctions in the composition profiles at the urban and background sites were
252	likely due to the difference in their emission sources, photochemical degradation rates, and loss
253	due to condensation and deposition during transport (Wang at al., 2009). PAHs with molecular
254	weights between 252-300 (from BbF to COR) accounted for 33.8%-53.4% of the total PAHs
255	with higher percentages found during morning and night periods at the urban site. This was well
256	correlated with the early and late peaks in traffic emissions. Differently, the contribution of high
257	molecular weights (e.g., 5,6,7- ring PAHs) to the total PAHs was significantly lower at the

258	marine (21.3%-30.7%) and mountain (25.2%-32.7%) sites, which may be attributed to loses
259	during transport and a limited number of motor vehicles at the two sites. Previous studies have
260	also reported that high molecular weight PAHs made a large contribution to the total PAHs in
261	Xi'an, an urban site (Okuda et al., 2010) and in Malaysia, a semi-urban area (Khan et al., 2015).
262	The concentration of 12 NPAHs at the urban site ranged from 71.41 to 237.6 pg $m^{-3}$ , with a
263	mean value of 153.7 pg m <sup>-3</sup> . This was 3.61 and 3.27 times higher than in samples from the
264	marine (30.78 - 62.31 pg m <sup>-3</sup> , average: 42.60 pg m <sup>-3</sup> ) and mountain (32.50 - 68.07 pg m <sup>-3</sup> ,
265	average: 47.00 pg m <sup>-3</sup> ) sites. The total concentration of 12 NPAHs is almost two orders of
266	magnitude lower than the total average concentration of the 17 PAHs measured at the three sites,
267	The three most abundant NPAHs at the urban site were 9N-ANT, 2+3N-FLT, and 2N-PYR,
268	accounting for 78.2%-88.1% of total NPAHs. Similar molecular composition patterns were
269	found at the background sites, accounting for 81.5%-92.9% at the marine site and 81.2%-91.5%
270	at the mountain site. The concentrations of total NPAHs at the marine sites were higher during
271	the morning and night periods compared with those during day and evening periods, which was
272	the same as the observed diurnal variation of PAHs. However, the concentration of NPAH
273	varied considerably at the mountain site, with lowest values observed during the night period
274	and highest during the day period. This was dissimilar to the diurnal cycle of total PAHs.
275	1N-PYR, which solely originates from direct emissions (mainly from diesel powered
276	engines) (Nielsen, 1984), ranged from 5.09 to 2.22 pg m <sup>-3</sup> at the urban site, with the greatest
277	concentrations occurring during periods of increased traffic. 7N-BaA exhibited similar diurnal
278	variation as 1N-PYR at the urban site, which is the most abundant compound in diesel fuel
279	particles (Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000). The concentrations of 7N-BaA were found to be the

280	highest at the urban sites, followed by the mountain site (from 0.76 to 1.81 pg $m^{-3}$ ), and then the
281	marine site (from 1.03 to 1.12 pg $m^{-3}$ ). This suggests that local emissions were relatively small
282	contributors at the background sites. The average concentration of 2+3N-FLT in the daytime
283	including morning, day and evening time periods at MT site was much higher than that in the
284	nighttime, but the same level was shown during daytime and nighttime at TJ site, and slightly
285	lower level was found in the daytime at JN than that in nighttime. But 2N-PYR had a peak
286	during morning time and was much higher in the daytime compared with that in the nighttime at
287	the three sites. This is may associated with the daytime formation of 2+3N-FLT and 2N-PYR or
288	3N-FLT from vehicle emissions possibly had a unexpected role, and the influence of $NO_3$ is
289	also can't be ignored. Alam et al., (2015) and Tsapakis and Stephanou, (2007) found that the
290	concentrations of 2+3N-FLT and 2N-PYR were higher in daytime than those in nighttime in
291	UK and Mediterranean.

The concentration of the 6 measured OPAHs was higher at the urban site (an average value 292 of 0.85 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) than at the mountain (0.28 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) and at the marine site (0.22 ng m<sup>-3</sup>). This is 293 294 almost one order of magnitude lower than concurrent concentration of total PAHs. Our measured OPAHs at the urban site were more concentrated than measurements conducted in 295 than Taiyuan (0.71 ng m<sup>-3</sup>), Dezhou (0.03 ng m<sup>-3</sup>), and Yantai (0.08 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) (Li et al., 2015). The 296 concentrations of OPAHs was highest in the morning and day periods at all three sites, which is 297 distinct from the diurnal variations of PAHs and NPAHs. This difference may be partly due to 298 299 the fact that OPAHs are mainly emitted from solid fuel burning such as coal, firewood, and crop residues in Northern China and vehicle emissions contributed relatively little to OPAHs 300 compared with to PAHs and NPAHs (Li et al., 2015). no obviously diurnal pattern of OPAHs 301

was found at Finokalia, Island of Crete without local emissions (Tsapakis and Stephanou, 2007).

303 The six OPAHs components all presented higher levels in the daytime than those in the

304 nighttime in marine and mountain background sites. The most abundant OPAH was 9FO,

- followed by ATQ in the three sites, accounting for 80.9%- 96.1% of total OPAHs.
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### **307 3.2. Source diagnostics**

Diagnostic ratios are frequently used to identify the sources of PAHs because the distributions of the homologues are strongly related with the formation mechanisms of organic species with similar characteristics (Kavouras, 2001). Diagnostic tool should be used with caution because some ratios are variable in the atmosphere due to the different degradation ratios of some PAH species (Ding et al., 2007).

314 FLT, PYR, IcdP and BghiP have comparable degradation ratios (Behymer and Hites, 1988), so the ratios of FLT/(FLT+PYR) and IcdP/(IcdP+BghiP) can reveal original compositional 315 information during transportation and ensure the accuracy of source evaluation at receptor sites. 316 317 A FLT/(FLT+PYR) ratio higher than 0.5 indicates coal/biomass burning and between 0.4 and 318 0.5 indicates petroleum combustion (Pio et al., 2001; Yunker et al., 2002), as shown in Table 1. A ratio of IcdP/(IcdP+BghiP) higher than 0.5 indicates coal/ biomass combustion, and a ratio 319 320 lower than 0.2 is characteristic of petroleum source. A IcdP/(IcdP+BghiP) ratio between 0.2 and 321 0.5 (or 0.18-0.40) indicates petroleum combustion (Pio et al., 2001; Yunker et al., 2002). The 322 IcdP/(IcdP+BghiP) ratios ranged from 0.40 to 0.43, with an average value of 0.41 at the urban 323 site (Table 1), implying that petroleum combustion was a strong contributor. Comparable values 324 were also observed in other Chinese cities, such as Shanghai (Feng et al., 2006), Beijing (Okuda et al., 2006), Qingdao (Guo et al., 2003), and Nanjing (Wang et al., 2006). A negligible 325

326	difference in the IcdP/(IcdP+BghiP) ratio at the marine (from 0.37 to 0.42, average: 0.39),
327	mountain (from 0.42 to 0.47, average: 0.45), and urban sites was found. The ratio is lower than
328	those obtained in Florence, a urban background site and Athens, a suburban site (all higher than
329	0.5) in summer (Alves et al., 2017). But the ratios of IcdP/(IcdP+BghiP) at the background sites
330	in this paper were comparable with that previously obtained at the Yellow River Delta National
331	Nature Reserve (YRDNNR) in the summer (0.46) (Zhu et al., 2014). The average values of the
332	FLT/(FLT+PYR) ratio at the urban (0.68), marine (0.68), and mountain (0.66) sites were similar,
333	and all were higher than 0.5 indicating that coal or biomass combustion was a main source. The
334	ratios were slightly higher than those at Florence and Athens (all higher than 0.5, but lower than
335	0.6) in summer, but much higher than that in Oporto, a urban site (lower than 0.3) (Alves et al.,
336	2017). No obvious diurnal variations of the ratios were observed at the three sites, indicating
337	that the main source did not change during different sampling intervals. In conclusion, the two
338	diagnostic ratios suggest that fossil fuel and biomass combustion were the main sources at the
339	urban and background sites during the summer.
340	BaA and BaP degrade faster than their corresponding homologues (CHR and BeP), which
341	may significantly influence diagnostic ratios for source and downwind regions (Behymer and
342	Hites, 1988; Zhang et al., 2005). By leveraging these isomer pairs (BaA/CHR and BaP/BeP) the
343	residence time of particulate PAHs in the atmosphere can be evaluated. The ratios of BaP/BeP
344	and BaA/CHR were plotted in Fig. 3A and 3B during the four sampling periods for the urban,
345	marine, and mountain sites. The average ratios were the highest at the urban site (BaA/CHR:

346 0.46 and BaP/BeP: 0.46), and the lowest ratios were observed at the marine site ((BaA/CHR:

347 0.34 and BaP/BeP: 0.27), implying that the air masses collected at the urban site were relatively

fresh and most aged at the marine site. The ratios at the marine and mountain sites during the sampling periods were persistently less than 0.4, suggesting that air masses were strongly influenced by photo-degradation and long distance transport likely played an important role (Liu et al., 2013). In the urban area, the ratios of BaA/CHR and BaP/BeP were relatively low in day and evening periods, indicating the influence of photochemical reaction. The diurnal patterns of BaP/BeP in marine area was the same with that in urban area, but was different from that in mountain areas with higher values in day and night periods.

355 The ratio of 2N-FLT/1N-PYR has been traditionally applied to differentiate primary 356 emission and secondary formation of NPAHs in the atmosphere. 1N-PYR mainly derived from 357 diesel powered engines (Nielsen, 1984), while 2N-FLT is known to be formed by atmospheric photochemical reactions initiated by OH radicals in the daytime and NO<sub>3</sub> radicals in the 358 359 nighttime, and has never been observed from direct emissions (Arey et al., 1986). A ratio of 360 2N-FLT/1N-PYR higher than 5 indicates secondary formation of NPAHs, while a ratio lower than 5 indicates the primary emissions (Albinet et al., 2007; Bandowe et al., 2014). In our study, 361 362 the isomers of 2N-FLT and 3N-FLT were not separated by our GC-column HP-5MS and 363 analytical procedure. However, many previous studies have reported that 2+3N-FLT/1N-PYR can be used in lieu of to replace the original 2N-FLT/1N-PYR ratio due to negligible abundant 364 365 of 3N-FLT in the air compared with 2N-FLT (Bamford and Baker, 2003). Fig.3C presents the 366 ratios of 2+3N-FLT/1N-PYR from the three sites during the four sampling periods. While the average value at the urban site (17.5) was significant lower than that at the marine (27.3) and 367 mountain (25.8) sites, this diagnostic ratio reveals that atmospheric secondary formation of 368 2N-FLT dominated at the urban and background sites. The ratio values were comparable to that 369

370 obtained in the North China in the hot season (23.6) (Lin et al., 2015), but much lower than that 371 (89.1) observed during the winter in Wanqingsha, the South of China (Huang et al., 2014). The 372 greatest ratio (24.9) at the urban site was found in the day samples during periods of highest photochemical activity, which is similar to that at the mountain site. The ratio at the marine site 373 was the highest in the morning period. 374 The ratio of 2N-FLT/2N-PYR has been widely used to explore the occurrence and relative 375 376 importance of OH vs NO<sub>3</sub> radical initiated oxidation pathways for the formation of NPAHs in 377 the atmosphere (Arey et al., 1986). 2N-PYR is formed from PYR reacting with an OH radical in 378 the presence of NO<sub>2</sub>, but is not formed from the reaction with NO<sub>3</sub> radical (Arey et al., 1986). A 379 ratio close to 10 indicates the dominance of the OH radical-initiated reaction, while a ratio close to 100 indicates that the NO<sub>3</sub> radical-initiated reactions dominate NPAHs formation (Albinet et 380 381 al., 2007; Wang et al., 2011a). In our study, the average ratios at the urban (4.0), marine (9.6), and mountain sites (8.8) (Fig.3D) were all less than 10, indicating the domination of day-time 382 OH radical-initiated formation pathways. This is consistent with previously reported values 383 384 from the summer season in North China (4.5) (Lin et al., 2015) and in Beijing (below 10) 385 (Wang et al., 2011a). The highest ratios were observed during the night period at the urban site, which is similar to trends at the two background sites. The ratios at the background sites were 386 387 significantly higher than the urban site, which may partly be due to the higher concentration of 388 NO in the urban atmosphere because the reaction of  $NO_3$  with NO leads to low level of  $NO_3$ (Huang et al., 2014). 389

390

#### **391 3.3.Evaluation of excess cancer risk**

393	The lifetime excess cancer risk from inhalation (ECR) of PAH and NPAHs mixtures was
394	applied to assess the carcinogenicity of the samples. This method has been recommended by the
395	Office of Environmental Health Hazard Assessment (OEHHA) of the California Environmental
396	Protection Agency (CalEPA) and has been widely utilized in many previous studies (Bandowe
397	et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2014; Ramirez et al., 2011; Alves et al., 2017). The
398	carcinogenic risk of each PAH or NPAH compound was estimated based on its BaP equivalent
399	concentration (BaP <sub>eqi</sub> ), which is calculated by multiplying individual compound concentration
400	( $C_i$ ng m <sup>-3</sup> ) by the corresponding toxicity equivalency factor (TEF <sub>i</sub> ) as Eq (1). The TEF values
401	for 15 PAHs and 6 NPAHs were taken from Collins et al., (1998) and Nisbet and Lagoy (1992),
402	who reported the toxic potency of each PAH or NPAH relative to BaP (Petry et al., 1996). The
403	risk of OPAHs was not evaluated due to the lack of available TEF data. Using Eq (1), the toxic
404	equivalency (TEO) is the sum of target compound $BaP_{eq}$ .

405 
$$BaP_{eqi} = C_i * TEF_i$$
 and  $TEQ = \sum (C_i * TEF_i)$  (1)

ECR was assessed by employing Eq (2), where  $UR_{BaP}$  is the unit inhalation cancer risk factor of BaP. The  $UR_{BaP}$  is defined as the number of people who will develop cancer from the inhalation of 1 ng/m<sup>3</sup> BaP<sub>eq</sub> within a lifetime of 70 years. The  $UR_{BaP}$  was suggested to be 8.7 × 10<sup>-5</sup> (ng m<sup>-3</sup>)<sup>-1</sup> by the World Health Organization (WHO) and  $1.1 \times 10^{-6}$  (ng m<sup>-3</sup>)<sup>-1</sup> by CalEPA (OEHHA, 1994; WHO, 2000). This means that 8.7 or 0.11 cases per 100,000 people with

411 inhalational exposure to  $1 \text{ ng/m}^3$  of BaP over a lifetime of 70 years would have cancer risk.

412 
$$ECR = TEQ^* UR_{BaP}$$
(2)

413 The mean TEQ at the urban site was 2.49 ng m<sup>-3</sup> for the 21 target compounds, which is 414 substantially higher than for the mountain  $(0.43 \text{ ng m}^{-3})$  and marine  $(0.33 \text{ ng m}^{-3})$  sites. The

415	TEQ at the urban site was much lower than the national standard of 10 ng m <sup>-3</sup> , but higher than
416	the WHO standard (1 ng m <sup>-3</sup> ) (Ventafridda et al., 1987). The value at the urban location was
417	also much lower than what was previously calculated for Beijing, China (Jia et al., 2011), Xi'an,
418	China (Bandowe et al., 2014) and Zonguldak, Turkey (Akyuz and Cabuk, 2008), but higher than
419	those for western and southern European cities (Martellini et al., 2012; Alves et al., 2017). The
420	values at the marine and mountain locations were comparable with that observed in the
421	YRDNNR in summer (0.45 ng m <sup>-3</sup> ) (Zhu et al., 2014). BbF, BaP, IcdP, and DahA, especially
422	DahA and BaP, contributed significantly to the TEQ value at the three sites. The actual TEQ
423	may be higher in view of the BaP degradation by $O_3$ during air sampling on the filters
424	(Menichini et al., 2009). The TEQ diurnal patterns at the three sites were consistent with the
425	daily variation of total PAHs concentration, which was highest during morning and night
426	periods at the urban and marine sites and during morning and day periods at mountain site. The
427	contribution of average TEQ of 6 NPAHs to the total TEQ was larger at the background sites
428	(MT, 1.72% and TJ, 1.34%) than that at the urban site (0.41%), which may due to the influence
429	of secondary formation of NPAHs during long-distance transport and high concentration of
430	PAHs at urban site.
431	The average ECR for 70 years' life span was $2.17 \times 10^{-4}$ (WHO method) and $2.74 \times 10^{-6}$

(CalEPA method) at the urban site. Hence, inhalation of the 21 measured compounds could
result in 217 or 3 cases of cancer per million adult residents in Jinan, respectively. This was
higher than estimates for the marine (29 WHO method and 1 CalEPA method cases per million)
and mountain (38 WHO method and 1 CalEPA method cases per million) sites. The lower ECR
at background sites is likely attributable to less direct source emissions, lower population, and

437	favorable diffusion conditions. The acceptable or negligible threshold of ECR using WHO
438	method based on American Environmental Protection Agency is 10 <sup>-6</sup> , so the lifetime excess
439	cancer risk should be paid attention for healthy protection in the future in the Chinese cities.
440	
441	4. Summary
442	
443	In this study, PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs were investigated during the summer in the
444	Northern China at an urban site and two background sites at 3.5 h and 11.5 h sampling intervals.
445	The average concentrations of PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs at the urban site were 19.45 ng m <sup>-3</sup> ,
446	153.7 pg m <sup>-3</sup> , and 0.85 ng m <sup>-3</sup> , respectively, which were 3.61-4.38 and 3.05-3.61 times higher
447	than those at marine and mountain sites, respectively. The concentrations of PAHs and NPAHs
448	were greatest during morning and night periods at the urban and marine sites and during
449	morning and day periods at the mountain site. The concentration of OPAHs was highest during
450	the morning and day periods at all the three sites. The diurnal variations of high molecular
451	weight PAHs (e.g., 1N-PRY and 7N-BaA) at the urban site was closely linked to vehicle
452	emissions.
453	On the basis of diagnostic ratios, the main sources of PAHs were found to be fossil fuel
454	and biomass combustion. The air masses at the background sites, especially at the marine site,
455	were more aged compared with those at the urban site. The atmospheric reactions were most
456	efficient at the marine site, followed by the mountain site. The main reaction pathway was
457	OH-initiated radical reactions at the urban and background sites. The contribution of secondary
458	formation to the total PAHs was largest during the day period at the urban and mountain sites
459	and during morning period at the marine site.

460	The mean toxicity equivalency factor at the urban site was higher than those at marine and
461	mountain sites and greater than the guidelines suggested by the World Health Organization. The
462	average excess cancer risk from inhalation (ECR) for 70 years' life span was highest at the
463	urban site.
464	
465	Acknowledgements
466	
467	This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Nos.
468	21577079 and 21307074). This project has received funding from the European Union's
469	Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 690958.
470	
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**Fig. 1.** The three sampling locations (Wang et al., 2009). The squares indicate background sampling sites.



Fig. 2. Diurnal variation (Mor: morning, Eve: evening, Nig: night) and average (Ave)
concentration of PAHs, NPAHs, and OPAHs at the urban (JN), marine (TJ) and mountain (MT)
locations.



Fig. 3. Ratios of BaP/BeP (A), BaA/CHR (B), 2+3N-FLT/1N-PYR (C) and 2+3N-FLT/2N-PYR (D) at the three different sites during four sampling periods (Mor: morning, Eve: evening, Nig: night).



Fig. 4. TEQ of particulate PAHs and NPAHs during the four different sampling periods at the three locations.

#### Table 1

Diagnostic ratios of particulate PAHs at the three locations during the four sampling periods.

	FLT/(FLT+PYR)	IcdP/(IcdP+BghiP)
JN		
Morning	0.68	0.41
Day	0.70	0.43
Evening	0.70	0.41
Night	0.63	0.40
TJ		
Morning	0.66	0.39
Day	0.67	0.42
Evening	0.73	0.39
Night	0.66	0.37
MT		
Morning	0.65	0.47
Day	0.67	0.46
Evening	0.69	0.42
Night	0.63	0.45
Reference source		
emissions		
	>0.5 coal/ biomass combustion	>0.5 coal/ biomass combustion
	<0.5 and >0.4 petroleum	<0.5 and >0.2 petroleum
	combustion	combustion
	<0.2 petroleum source	<0.2 petroleum source